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## Oxidative stress and macrophages

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1 **Oxidative stress and macrophages: driving forces behind**  
2 **exacerbations of asthma and COPD?**

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23

24 **Running head:** Oxidative stress and macrophages in asthma and COPD

25

26 **Key words:** Macrophage polarization, obstructive lung disease, oxidant and antioxidant

27

28 **Abstract**

29 Oxidative stress is a common feature of obstructive airway diseases like asthma and chronic  
30 obstructive pulmonary disease (COPD). Lung macrophages are key innate immune cells that can  
31 generate oxidants and are known to display aberrant polarization patterns and defective  
32 phagocytic responses in these diseases. Whether these characteristics are linked in one way or  
33 another and whether they contribute to the onset and severity of exacerbations in asthma and  
34 COPD remains poorly understood. Insight into oxidative stress, macrophages and their  
35 interactions may be important in fully understanding acute worsening of lung disease. This  
36 review therefore highlights the current state of the art regarding the role of oxidative stress and  
37 macrophages in exacerbations of asthma and COPD. It shows that oxidative stress can attenuate  
38 macrophage function, which may result in impaired responses towards exacerbating triggers  
39 and may contribute to exaggerated inflammation in the airways.

40

## 41 **Introduction**

42 Obstructive lung diseases such as asthma and chronic obstructive pulmonary disease (COPD)  
43 are characterized by chronic lung inflammation of diverse origin and localization, but both are  
44 associated with oxidative stress and changes in macrophage function (113, 128, 129, 155, 157).  
45 Macrophages are the most abundant leukocytes in the airways and crucial for regulating  
46 immune responses. In addition, they are well known for their ability to generate reactive  
47 oxidants, like reactive oxygen species (ROS) and reactive nitrogen species (RNS), to protect  
48 against invading pathogens (69). The host protects itself against these reactive species by  
49 increased expression of antioxidants. Oxidative stress results from an imbalance between the  
50 production of oxidants and antioxidant defenses. In obstructive lung diseases this imbalance is  
51 potentially associated with disease development and severity. It may also contribute to acute  
52 worsening of these diseases, called exacerbations, although there is considerably less data  
53 available. In this review we present the current state of knowledge on the contribution of  
54 oxidative stress to exacerbations, with a focus on lung macrophages.

55

## 56 **Obstructive lung diseases and macrophages**

57 Lung macrophages have been shown to be involved in the induction and progression of lung  
58 inflammation in asthma and COPD, but are also emerging as important cells that control and  
59 limit inflammatory events in the lung (24, 73, 151, 161). This multitude of different, and  
60 sometimes even opposing, tasks is handled through distinct polarized “activation” states of  
61 macrophages. Signals from the tissue surrounding macrophages determine the polarization type  
62 and prepare them for the different roles needed at specific times.

63 In the past macrophage polarization was seen as a dichotomous process yielding either M1 and  
64 M2 macrophages, similar to the process of differentiation seen for T cells. M1 macrophages or  
65 classically activated macrophages are pro-inflammatory macrophages associated with Th1  
66 inflammation. M2 or alternatively activated macrophages are associated with Th2 inflammation  
67 and wound healing. However, we now know that this process of polarization is much more

68 complex *in vivo* and an almost continuous spectrum of different macrophage phenotypes exists.  
69 This has made literature from this field rather confusing and in 2014 a consortium of  
70 macrophage experts suggested a new nomenclature in which macrophages in *in vivo* situation  
71 should be labeled with the markers used to isolate/characterize them (127). Since this usually  
72 involves many markers, readability remains an issue and often people still refer to the old  
73 M1/M2 names. While writing this review we struggled with old papers using the old names, new  
74 papers ignoring the guidelines, papers using the nomenclature correctly and how to summarize  
75 results from papers using different markers that can identify macrophages with roughly similar  
76 functionalities. We therefore chose to divide lung macrophages first into alveolar macrophages  
77 (AMs) when this specific type was mentioned or lung macrophages when no distinction was  
78 made. We did not find publications specifically looking at interstitial macrophages (IMs) in the  
79 context of oxidative stress and asthma or COPD. Regarding polarization, we grouped  
80 macrophages in studies stating the use of M1 or markers associated with Th1 responses under  
81 the name M1 and macrophages in studies stating the use of M2 or markers associated with Th2  
82 inflammatory responses under the name M2. As the name “M2” macrophages in literature is also  
83 used for macrophages with anti-inflammatory functions we also introduced a third class named  
84 M2-like anti-inflammatory macrophages to indicate macrophages that look like M2 macrophages  
85 but produce anti-inflammatory or pro-resolution molecules and used this name whenever it was  
86 clear that anti-inflammatory macrophages were studied. The different markers used in literature  
87 to identify differentially polarized macrophages in human and murine lung tissue are  
88 summarized in **Figure 1**. To assist the reader further, we summarized all papers that cite  
89 macrophage polarization in **Table 1** and indicated which markers were used for identification  
90 and which names these macrophages were given in the original paper.

91

92 The role of macrophage polarization in respiratory diseases has been extensively reviewed by us  
93 before (22). In short, both asthma and COPD are characterized by alterations in macrophage  
94 polarization, and therefore function, that contribute to development and severity of the disease

95 (23, 51, 54-56, 81, 122, 146). Lung macrophages in healthy individuals or mice have low  
96 expression of markers indicating a specific polarization type and most are characterized as anti-  
97 inflammatory expressing interleukin (IL)-10 (54, 122). In asthma, however, the numbers of M1  
98 and M2-polarized macrophages are higher than in controls at the apparent cost of M2-like anti-  
99 inflammatory macrophages that are lower in asthma compared to control (54, 55, 72, 102, 119,  
100 121, 122, 125). When these IL-10-producing M2-like macrophages are subsequently reinstated  
101 in murine lung tissue, this was associated with having less allergic lung inflammation (53).  
102 Furthermore, neutrophil-dominated asthma is associated with M1-polarized macrophages,  
103 whereas eosinophil-dominated asthma is associated with M2-polarized macrophages in mice  
104 (54, 56, 122, 146). These studies combined suggest that in mouse models of asthma lung  
105 macrophages lose their anti-inflammatory properties and acquire a polarized activation state  
106 with the polarization type determining the inflammation outcome: M1-polarized being  
107 associated with neutrophils and M2-polarized with eosinophils. However, this still needs to be  
108 confirmed in humans.

109

110 In COPD, polarization changes are less apparent, though dysregulation of M1 and M2  
111 polarization patterns has been described with macrophages acquiring and losing both M1 and  
112 M2 markers and an unexpected loss of inflammatory signatures in AMs of COPD patients  
113 compared to non-COPD smokers (9, 156, 187). A study by Eapen et al. characterized both AMs  
114 and IMs from COPD patients, smokers with normal lung function and healthy controls and found  
115 that smokers primarily had M1-polarized IMs and M2-polarized AMs compared to nonsmokers  
116 irrespective of having COPD (61). The effects of smoking in this study thus appeared to have far  
117 more influence on macrophage polarization than having COPD, suggesting that maybe we need  
118 more functional readouts to capture the changes in COPD. Indeed, several studies showed  
119 changes in AM function as compared to controls (23, 79, 81). For instance, macrophage  
120 responsiveness in COPD seems to be impaired, resulting in disturbed efferocytosis of airway  
121 epithelial cells and eosinophils (63, 80). In addition, impaired phagocytosis of pathogens by

122 (alveolar) macrophages was demonstrated in COPD patients (12-15, 17, 165, 185). Summarizing  
123 these results, COPD appears to be characterized by dysfunctional macrophages with maybe an  
124 inability to polarize effectively towards a specific inflammatory signature, resulting in defective  
125 phagocytosis and efferocytosis. This may then contribute to ongoing inflammation due to  
126 persistence of dead cells and microbes.

127

## 128 **Obstructive lung diseases and oxidative/nitrosative stress**

129 Also characteristic for both asthma and COPD is the presence of oxidative stress. Lung tissue is  
130 continuously exposed to ambient air and due to its large surface area and blood supply highly  
131 susceptible to oxidative injury by reactive species, including superoxide, hydrogen peroxide  
132 (H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>), nitric oxide (NO) and peroxynitrite. These oxidants and nitrating agents can be of either  
133 exogenous (e.g. cigarette smoke and air pollution) or endogenous origin (e.g. production by  
134 resident and inflammatory cells such as macrophages and in mitochondria). In normal  
135 conditions, ROS/RNS act as signaling molecules to regulate physiological processes. Yet, in the  
136 case of chronic inflammation, the excess generation of reactive species can also lead to oxidative  
137 stress, damaging multiple cellular organelles and processes and ultimately contributing to the  
138 pathogenesis and exacerbation of obstructive lung diseases (**Figure 2**, upper panel).

139 In order to have such an impact, ROS/RNS must outcompete a wide range of antioxidant defense  
140 mechanisms, including the glutathione (GSH) and thioredoxin (TRX) redox systems, catalase  
141 (CAT) and superoxide dismutase (SOD) enzymes (142). These antioxidant defenses are  
142 regulated by nuclear factor erythroid 2-related factor 2 (Nrf2), the master regulator of  
143 antioxidant responses (**Figure 2**, lower panel) (195).

144

145 Direct measurement of ROS/RNS is relatively complicated because of their high reactivity and  
146 short lifetime. As a result, lipid peroxidation products (e.g. 4-hydroxynonenal (4-HNE), 8-  
147 isoprostane and/or F<sub>2</sub>-isoprostanes and malondialdehyde (MDA)), products of protein  
148 oxidation/nitration (e.g. protein carbonylation (this includes e.g. 4-HNE and MDA protein

149 adducts, resulting from a phenomenon often referred to as carbonyl stress), bromotyrosine,  
150 chlorotyrosine and nitrotyrosine) and products of DNA oxidation (e.g. 8-hydroxy-2'-  
151 deoxyguanosine (8-OHdG)) have been widely used as (indirect) markers of oxidative and  
152 nitrosative damage and thus ROS/RNS activity. Still, one has to keep in mind that proper storage  
153 and prevention of further oxidation are important to obtain reliable results.

154

155 The role of oxidative stress in the pathogenesis of asthma and COPD has been extensively  
156 addressed in several reviews (42, 95, 120, 140, 149). In short, it has been found that excess  
157 production of ROS can contribute to airway inflammation and hyperresponsiveness and may  
158 also be involved in decreasing sensitivity to treatment and subsequently worsen disease  
159 outcomes. Higher levels of markers of oxidative stress have been found in asthmatics and COPD  
160 patients versus healthy controls and altered levels of various antioxidants have been reported in  
161 asthma and COPD as well (128, 129). An increase in antioxidant capacity is generally explained  
162 as an attempt to a defense response, while a decrease most likely represents neutralization or  
163 inactivation by ROS. Loss of antioxidants can thus be the consequence of enhanced oxidative  
164 stress, but can in turn also contribute to more oxidative stress and perhaps the severity of  
165 asthma and COPD. This apparent contradiction in outcomes can only be solved by studying  
166 fluctuations in oxidative stress over time and relate these to clinical symptoms in patients.

167

168 Nitrosative stress in asthma and COPD is less often investigated. A few studies have looked into  
169 the end products of nitrosative stress and found NO concentrations and the severity of  
170 eosinophilic airway inflammation to be positively correlated in asthma and a subgroup of COPD  
171 patients (52, 199). In addition, exhaled breath condensate (EBC) and sputum peroxynitrite  
172 levels were found to be higher and peroxynitrite inhibitory activity lower in asthma and COPD  
173 patients compared to healthy volunteers and peroxidative stress was negatively correlated with  
174 the forced expiratory volume in one second (FEV<sub>1</sub>) (11, 89, 90, 136). This suggests that RNS may  
175 have a functional role in asthma and COPD as well. Other evidence suggests that a reduced



176 availability of arginine may result in higher nitrosative stress with a possible negative impact on  
177 lung function in asthma and COPD (38, 148, 152, 153).

178

## 179 **Oxidative/nitrosative stress and macrophages in asthma and COPD**

180 Oxidative and nitrosative stress and macrophages are linked in many ways in asthma and COPD.  
181 ROS/RNS can affect macrophage function and thereby influence disease severity, but on the  
182 other hand the high number of (activated) AMs present in these diseases can contribute to  
183 generation of ROS/RNS during phagocytosis or after stimulation with a wide variety of  
184 (microbial) agents (a process referred to as the respiratory burst) (69). One of the proteins  
185 shown to play a role in bacterial killing by generating ROS in macrophages is tartrate resistant  
186 acid phosphatase (145). We have recently shown that the expression of tartrate resistant acid  
187 phosphatase is higher in AMs of asthma and COPD patients than in controls, thereby possibly  
188 contributing to generation of oxidative stress (23). This is corroborated by the finding that  
189 macrophages of patients with asthma and COPD have higher production of inducible NO  
190 synthase (iNOS) than nonsmoking and smoking control subjects, resulting in upregulation of  
191 RNS as assessed by nitrotyrosine, iNOS and heme oxygenase 1 (HO-1) staining in lung tissue (2,  
192 90, 115, 160, 178).

193 Other studies have shown that exposure to excess ROS/RNS can lead to impaired function of  
194 macrophages, e.g. senescence and impaired phagocytosis (8, 77, 198). This macrophage  
195 dysfunction was suggested to at least partially result from oxidation of mannose binding lectin, a  
196 key component required for effective phagocytosis (168). Oxidative stress may additionally  
197 cause accumulation of damaged lipid proteins in mouse models of COPD, which can inhibit the  
198 phagocytic function of AMs and drive inflammatory behavior (126, 166, 167). High oxidative  
199 stress in animal models was indeed shown to attenuate AM function, primarily resulting in  
200 reduced phagocytic capacity and cell viability (30, 31, 33). Moreover, high oxidative stress  
201 affected maturation of AMs in guinea pigs, as demonstrated by a shift towards a less terminally  
202 differentiated population (33). Increased ROS production in the AM cell line NR8383 also

203 resulted in enhanced expression of M2 activation markers, possibly due to induction of  
204 transforming growth factor beta (TGF- $\beta$ ) signaling and diminished antioxidant availability (32).  
205 Treatment with antioxidants in this case was able to lower oxidative stress and improve  
206 phagocytosis and maturation of AMs and partially blocked alternative activation in NR8383 cells  
207 (31-33). Further research into specific mechanisms causing impaired AM function showed a key  
208 role for NADPH oxidases and mitochondrial ROS (mROS) generation, which in addition provided  
209 targets for normalizing ROS production and rescuing phagocytic capacity (110, 111, 190, 191).  
210 Although the aforementioned animal studies demonstrate that high oxidative stress plays a role  
211 in AM dysfunction, all models are based on chronic alcohol ingestion and more direct evidence is  
212 essential to fully understand what happens in asthma and COPD. It was already shown that AMs  
213 from COPD patients have chronic mROS production, causing increased mROS baseline levels.  
214 However, these AMs fail to generate sufficient mROS upon bacterial challenge (17). High  
215 oxidative stress in COPD may thus impair mitochondrial function and result in reduced bacterial  
216 clearance. Furthermore, the mitochondrial-specific antioxidant mitoTEMPO did not increase  
217 intracellular bacterial numbers in AMs from COPD patients (while it did in healthy), confirming  
218 mitochondrial dysfunction as a key determinant of their defective antimicrobial response  
219 (17).

220 In addition to endogenous ROS/RNS, the function of macrophages can be altered by exogenously  
221 generated ROS/RNS. Cigarette smoke models are commonly used for studying AMs in COPD with  
222 cigarette smoke inducing oxidative stress. Cigarette smoke exposure *ex vivo* resulted in a redox  
223 imbalance with higher production of NO by rat AMs and higher ROS production by human and  
224 mouse macrophages (96, 139, 192). Similar results were found *in vivo* when oxidative stress was  
225 assessed as increased expression of MDA and HO-1 and by decreased GSH levels in macrophages  
226 of cigarette smoke-exposed rats (183). Moreover, cigarette smoke provokes oxidative damage in  
227 macrophages. For example, cigarette smoke exposure resulted in cell apoptosis and  
228 downregulated phagocytic ability of macrophages and decreased efferocytosis as measured in  
229 both bronchoalveolar lavage fluid (BALF) and tissue macrophages obtained from cigarette

230 smoke-exposed mice (81, 139, 192). These cigarette smoke-induced changes were shown to  
231 improve by procysteine antioxidant treatment (81).

232

233 Taken together, these studies suggest that in addition to being an important source of ROS/RNS,  
234 the redox state is crucial for proper macrophage function as well as differentiation when needed.

235 The airway inflammation and altered function and polarization of macrophages as seen in  
236 asthma and COPD thus may be related to increased oxidative stress found in these diseases.

237 However, it is still not clear whether changes in macrophage polarization are cause or effect of  
238 oxidative stress and what the actual consequences are.

239

## 240 **Exacerbations of asthma and COPD**

241 Both asthma and COPD patients can suffer from periodic acute worsening of symptoms called  
242 exacerbations, that are associated with increased airway inflammation, a decline in lung function  
243 and increased mortality. Despite more therapeutic intervention and medication, these remain  
244 difficult to control (6, 40). During an exacerbation, patients have difficulties in breathing, chest  
245 pain and cough up sputum, caused by restriction of the airways and overproduction of mucus  
246 (182). Exacerbations are predominantly triggered by viral and bacterial respiratory infections,  
247 but can also be induced by exposure to allergens, air pollution or exercise (101). Yet, why some  
248 patients develop an exacerbation during an infection or other exposures and why some do not, is  
249 not understood. It has been suggested this may be associated with different levels of oxidative  
250 stress.

251

252 Oxidative stress during exacerbations of asthma and COPD has been studied in various settings,  
253 in humans as well as in animal models. Numerous studies in patients suffering from acute  
254 exacerbations requiring hospitalization demonstrated that exacerbations are associated with an  
255 increase in oxidative stress, both locally and systemically, as assessed as increases in the levels  
256 of well-known oxidative stress markers (i.e. 8-isoprostane, H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>, MDA, protein carbonylation

257 and reactive oxygen metabolites (ROM)) compared to stable disease (**Table 2**). These increases  
258 are often accompanied with higher levels of inflammatory markers such as C-reactive protein  
259 (CRP), cysteinyl leukotrienes (Cys-LTs) and leukotriene B4 (LTB4) (3, 7, 18, 116, 159, 193).  
260 Experimental allergen or rhinovirus-induced exacerbations in asthmatics and COPD patients  
261 were also shown to result in ROS generation and higher levels of 8-isoprostane and/or F<sub>2</sub>-  
262 isoprostanes compared to baseline (34, 36, 59, 60, 68). Even in an *ex vivo* lipopolysaccharide  
263 (LPS)-induced human COPD exacerbation model, higher H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> and MDA levels were detected  
264 compared to vehicle (39). Moreover, animal models of asthma and COPD exacerbations  
265 displayed similar increases in oxidative stress levels as reported for patients, indicating that  
266 these models are suited to study mechanistic effects. For example, LPS, diesel exhaust  
267 particulates, ozone and graphene oxide were all able to exacerbate airway inflammation in  
268 ovalbumin or house dust mite mouse models of asthma (both acute and chronic models),  
269 resulting in increased ROS production and elevated levels of e.g. 8-isoprostane and MDA (58, 85,  
270 94, 99, 134, 154). In addition, viral infection mimicked by poly(I:C) stimulation led to enhanced  
271 protein carbonylation in a mouse model of COPD exacerbation (164).

272

273 The majority of human studies on this topic have focused on oxidative stress markers in serum,  
274 plasma or material derived from upper or lower airways. Wu et al., however, found that changes  
275 in oxidative stress during exacerbations in asthmatic adults can also be detected by measuring  
276 the major urinary metabolite of F<sub>2</sub>-isoprostane (186). Still, some matrices may have superior  
277 clinical utility over others, since discrepancies are known to exist as well. For example, sputum  
278 MDA levels in COPD patients experiencing an acute exacerbation were significantly higher  
279 compared to stable COPD, healthy controls and after treatment, while levels of MDA in EBC were  
280 comparable for all groups (4). The authors hypothesized that this difference may be explained  
281 by the high day-to-day variability in EBC MDA readings. On the other hand, a significant  
282 association between local and systemic MDA was found in patients experiencing acute COPD  
283 exacerbations (194).

284

285 Although most studies investigate markers of oxidative stress, antioxidant responses have been  
286 studied as well. Significant negative relationships between MDA levels and GSH, glutathione  
287 peroxidase (GPx) and SOD were observed in both asthma and COPD exacerbations, implicating  
288 an important role for antioxidants in the development of exacerbations (45, 194). **Table 3**  
289 depicts some of the most common antioxidants measured in patients hospitalized due to asthma  
290 and COPD exacerbations. While it is obvious that levels of markers of oxidative stress are higher  
291 during acute exacerbations (**Table 2**), findings regarding antioxidant capacity appear to be  
292 conflicting, with some studies finding higher and some finding lower levels than in stable  
293 disease. These different outcomes are difficult to explain and can probably only be resolved by  
294 following patients clinically in detail over time. Results from experimental and *ex vivo* human  
295 exacerbation models were more unanimous, revealing a decrease in GSH and SOD during  
296 experimental exacerbations compared to baseline (39, 43, 59). Lower antioxidant levels of CAT,  
297 GSH and SOD were also found during exacerbations in mouse models (58, 99, 154). The  
298 importance of antioxidant status is further highlighted by *ex vivo* and animal studies showing  
299 that the administration of antioxidants (apocynin, curcumin, ebselen, GSH, N-acetylcysteine  
300 (NAC) and vitamin E) is to various degrees able to restore antioxidant levels, lower oxidative  
301 stress and thereby reduce airway inflammation and hyperresponsiveness and ameliorate the  
302 induced exacerbation (39, 58, 62, 99, 135, 154).

303

304 Loss of lung function is an important indicator of a developing exacerbation and changes in FEV<sub>1</sub>  
305 in relation to oxidative stress and antioxidant levels have therefore been studied as well.  
306 Markers of oxidative stress in serum (MDA and ROM) were found to negatively correlate with  
307 FEV<sub>1</sub> during asthma and COPD exacerbations (26, 132). Moreover, sputum MDA levels primarily  
308 decreased in those COPD patients who had a more pronounced improvement in FEV<sub>1</sub> post-  
309 treatment, while MDA levels remained high in patients with minor changes in FEV<sub>1</sub> (4). This  
310 suggests that high oxidative stress levels are linked to more severe exacerbations and that the

311 capacity to counter ROS production is linked to a response to treatment. In addition, it has been  
312 suggested that antioxidant levels may reflect the severity of an exacerbation. A significant  
313 positive association between SOD activity and FEV<sub>1</sub> was seen in asthma patients admitted to the  
314 hospital because of acute exacerbations, suggesting that patients with higher SOD levels are  
315 better off during an exacerbation (91). On the other hand, serum levels of TRX negatively  
316 correlated with FEV<sub>1</sub> during exacerbations (189). Thus, altered antioxidants during asthma and  
317 COPD exacerbations may be part of the pathophysiological features of the disease.

318

319 Nitrosative stress during exacerbations remains poorly investigated, although elevated levels of  
320 nitrotyrosine were reported during both asthma and COPD exacerbations (68, 85, 171). In  
321 addition, acute exacerbations of COPD are characterized by higher levels of NO inhibitor  
322 asymmetric dimethylarginine (ADMA) concentrations in serum (148). ADMA promotes the  
323 formation of peroxynitrite and results in a shift towards L-arginine breakdown, contributing to  
324 airway obstruction. High ADMA levels in these patients were also found to be associated with  
325 higher all-cause mortality (180).

326

327 Macrophages may contribute to the development of exacerbations in several ways (**Figure 3**).  
328 Their defective phagocytic capacity as seen in asthma and COPD can result in impaired clearance  
329 of bacteria, subsequently leading to an increased bacterial burden in the lung (12, 67, 76, 112).  
330 Defective opsonic phagocytosis by AMs has recently been associated with both exacerbation  
331 frequency and FEV<sub>1</sub> in COPD patients (16). Impaired antiviral responses have been seen in  
332 asthmatic patients as well, which may be caused by changes in macrophage polarization. M1  
333 macrophages are favorable during viral infections as they have better antigen-presenting and  
334 antiviral capacity, but many macrophages in asthma display signs of M2 polarization (118, 122).  
335 Several studies have indeed demonstrated that rhinovirus-induced antiviral type 1 responses by  
336 AMs are defective in asthma patients (44, 105, 163). In addition to stimulating less M1  
337 polarization, this virus was also demonstrated to exacerbate Th2-mediated airway inflammation

338 in asthma, which correlated with viral load and symptom severity (86, 123). Moreover,  
339 rhinovirus infection in ovalbumin-sensitized mice resulted in more M2 macrophage polarization,  
340 enhancing hyperresponsiveness (82). In AMs of COPD patients, M1-related inflammatory genes  
341 are downregulated and M2-associated genes are upregulated compared to healthy controls,  
342 suggesting a similar effect on the antiviral capacity as seen in asthma (156). Moreover, impaired  
343 AM efferocytosis contributes to the accumulation of apoptotic material that may perpetuate  
344 inflammation in the airways (158, 168, 179). Impaired efferocytosis of eosinophils in COPD  
345 patients was in fact related to both the frequency and severity of future exacerbations (63). In  
346 addition, AMs of COPD patients prone to exacerbations were demonstrated to have impaired  
347 innate immune responses towards respiratory pathogens, including diminished cytokine  
348 induction and reduced nuclear factor kappa B (NF- $\kappa$ B) translocation (13).

349

350 Besides macrophage involvement in the induction of exacerbations, emerging evidence points  
351 towards changes in function and polarization of macrophages during exacerbations as well,  
352 which could be the result of being in an environment of high oxidative stress. Allergen  
353 provocation in atopic asthma patients induced airway inflammation and was associated with an  
354 altered phenotype pattern within the AM population (107, 108). For example, AMs post-  
355 challenge showed increased expression of the cluster of differentiation (CD) molecules CD11b  
356 and CD14, potentially resulting from an influx of blood monocytes. In ovalbumin and rhinovirus-  
357 induced acute exacerbation mouse models of chronic asthma, macrophage polarization was  
358 skewed towards M2/alternative activation, accompanied by higher expression of cell surface  
359 markers related to antigen presentation than in control asthmatic mice (35, 41, 131). Moreover,  
360 macrophages in mouse models of acute exacerbations exhibited higher expression of several  
361 pro-inflammatory cytokines compared to chronically challenged animals (35, 78, 133, 150).  
362 Consequently, these AMs were demonstrated to have a greater ability to stimulate the  
363 expression of Th2 cytokines when co-cultured with pulmonary CD4<sup>+</sup> T lymphocytes (78). In  
364 addition, THP-1-derived macrophages displayed an M2-polarized phenotype upon incubation

365 with sputum from exacerbating COPD patients (75). The altered macrophage function and  
366 polarization towards M2 during exacerbations may thus influence immune responses and  
367 contribute to aggravation of airway inflammation. This together with the aberrant M1  
368 macrophage differentiation may impair antiviral responses, making it an interesting therapeutic  
369 possibility to prevent virus-induced exacerbations.

370

### 371 **What causes oxidative/nitrosative stress in exacerbations?**

372 Several factors may contribute to oxidative stress during asthma and COPD exacerbations  
373 (**Figure 4**). As mentioned previously, exacerbations are usually caused by exogenous stimuli.  
374 Some of these triggers, including cigarette smoke and air pollution, contain different populations  
375 of free radicals and ROS/RNS that not only directly contribute to oxidative stress generation in  
376 the lung, but also stimulate the production of reactive species by e.g. epithelial cells and  
377 phagocytes. More specifically, it has been suggested that various sources of pollution particles  
378 trigger oxidant responses in a cell-specific manner (10). Furthermore, pollens were  
379 demonstrated to have intrinsic NADPH oxidases and are therefore able to generate ROS (5, 21).  
380 Environmental factors thus exacerbate airway inflammation and increase cellular ROS levels,  
381 but have been demonstrated to induce oxidative damage to mitochondria as well (66, 109). The  
382 resulting mitochondrial dysfunction and enhanced mROS generation was suggested to be  
383 responsible for the exacerbation of allergic airway inflammation in mice, as evidenced by the  
384 accumulation of eosinophils, mucus hypersecretion and bronchial hyperresponsiveness (1).  
385 Thus, exogenous events may directly and indirectly influence oxidative stress levels, thereby  
386 contributing to the development of asthma and COPD exacerbations.

387

388 Inflammatory cells represent an important endogenous source of ROS. Both asthma and COPD  
389 exacerbations are characterized by eosinophil and/or neutrophil recruitment to the airways  
390 (138). Following allergen-induced exacerbations in allergic asthmatic patients, circulating  
391 eosinophils display enhanced ROS production together with diminished apoptosis (65, 104).



392 Both observations point towards eosinophil priming upon exposure to allergen. *In vitro* allergen  
393 challenge of peripheral neutrophils obtained from allergic asthmatics induced the release of  
394 myeloperoxidase (MPO) and ROS production in an allergen-specific, dose and time-dependent  
395 manner (70, 124). Likewise, blood and sputum neutrophils of exacerbating COPD patients  
396 showed increased ROS production (176).

397

398 In addition to neutrophils and eosinophils, AMs are also relevant ROS-producing effector cells  
399 that are present in lung tissue during asthma and COPD exacerbations. AMs of allergic subjects  
400 and mild asthmatics demonstrated higher ROS metabolism and superoxide production after  
401 allergen challenge (36, 37). This may be related to lower Nrf2 activity, because inducing an  
402 experimental exacerbation by segmental allergen challenge in human atopic asthmatics led to  
403 lower Nrf2 DNA-binding activity and protein expression as well as inhibition of the Nrf2-  
404 dependent gene SOD-1 in AMs as compared to baseline (59). Likewise, oxidative stress was  
405 higher and protein levels of Nrf2 and its downstream target HO-1 were lower in ozone-  
406 exacerbated asthmatic mice than in mice with ovalbumin-induced asthma only (58). Human AMs  
407 after allergen challenge were also unable to respond to Nrf2-inducing agents like 2-cyano-3,12-  
408 dioxooleana-1,9(11)-dien-28-oic acid (CDDO) and sulforaphane *ex vivo*, as exemplified by failure  
409 to induce DNA-binding activity or protein expression of Nrf2 (59). This loss of Nrf2 activity and  
410 protein seems to be mediated by ROS, since vitamin E supplementation not only resulted in  
411 lower oxidative stress but was also able to restore the drop in Nrf2 (58, 59). Moreover, Nrf2  
412 agonists were able to increase phagocytosis by AMs from COPD patients, a process that is  
413 defective and associated with impaired responses to oxidative stress in this disease (16).  
414 Cigarette smoke-exposed Nrf2-deficient mice demonstrated lower pathogen clearance by  
415 macrophages, enhanced airway inflammation and greater pulmonary injury upon bacterial and  
416 viral infections than air-exposed mice, emphasizing the importance of Nrf2 in combating  
417 oxidative stress (76, 188). Additionally, virus infection in mice attenuated expression of Nrf2 and  
418 its target genes, leading to oxidative damage in the lung (83). Impaired Nrf2 activity and

419 subsequent deterioration of essential antioxidant responses in the airways may therefore play a  
420 critical role in the molecular pathways of asthma and COPD exacerbations. Targeting the Nrf2  
421 pathway using e.g. sulforaphane has already been suggested as a tool in preventing  
422 exacerbations of COPD, though not all trials were proven successful (19, 25, 76, 87, 184, 195).

423

## 424 **Clinical relevance and therapeutic strategies**

425 Measuring oxidative stress levels or altering stress levels are being investigated as clinical  
426 approaches in trying to predict, prevent and/or diminish the severity of exacerbations. For  
427 example, ROM levels in serum from asthmatics being more likely to experience severe  
428 exacerbations were higher compared to patients who did not suffer from exacerbations (132).  
429 This finding was supported by a ROC analysis that demonstrated an association between ROM  
430 levels and the occurrence of severe exacerbations. ROM levels were also found to be predictive  
431 for exacerbations in COPD patients with repeating exacerbations, since they increased before the  
432 exacerbation and changed corresponding to clinical symptoms (97). Other oxidative stress  
433 markers like lipid peroxide (LPO), MDA-modified low-density lipoprotein (MDA-LDL) and  
434 urinary 8-OHdG displayed trends similar to ROM, although changes in MDA-LDL levels appear 3-  
435 5 days later, limiting its use as a predictive marker. The activity of SOD has not been found to  
436 follow clinical symptoms and only showed minimal fluctuation (97). EBC 8-isoprostane levels,  
437 on the other hand, may have some predictive value as Keskin et al. showed that these were  
438 higher in asthmatic children with more than four exacerbations per year than in children with  
439 only 1-4 exacerbations per year, suggesting that these values are related to the number of  
440 exacerbations per year (92). In addition, specific eosinophil-catalyzed protein oxidation may be  
441 of important value, since higher baseline urinary levels of bromotyrosine in children  
442 corresponded to a fourfold higher chance of the occurrence of an asthma exacerbation (181).  
443 Several studies have found a significant relationship between vitamin D (a membrane  
444 antioxidant) insufficiency and higher odds of severe asthma exacerbations (20, 27-29, 147). This  
445 effect was even greater by traffic-related air pollution or co-occurrence of folate deficiency (20,

446 147). More specifically, vitamin D insufficiency was associated with significantly elevated  
447 oxidative stress levels, poorer lung function and decreased responsiveness to corticosteroids  
448 during severe exacerbations compared to vitamin D sufficiency (27, 103). However, vitamin D  
449 deficiency and exacerbations did not show any correlation in COPD cohort studies and it was  
450 also found to not increase the risk of rhinovirus-induced exacerbations (100, 141). The effects of  
451 vitamin D may possibly be minor in comparison to other complex factors that influence  
452 susceptibility to COPD exacerbations.

453 Taken together, measuring markers of oxidative stress and/or levels of antioxidants may help in  
454 identifying patients at risk of (severe) exacerbations of asthma and COPD. This has previously  
455 been suggested for allergen sensitization and also for allergen-induced asthma exacerbations  
456 (114, 175, 177). Whether these patients will actually benefit from strategies aiming for reduced  
457 oxidative stress levels or an increased antioxidant capacity remains to be investigated.  
458 Furthermore, studies on the predictive value of oxidative stress levels remain scarce and are  
459 mostly conducted with limited patient numbers and over a short time frame. Further research  
460 including larger patient cohorts is thus necessary to validate these findings and identify  
461 potential biomarkers for predicting exacerbations.

462

463 Antioxidant administration to counteract oxidative stress and thereby possibly prevent asthma  
464 and COPD exacerbations or modulate their severity has been investigated in quite a few studies.  
465 Animal and *ex vivo* studies showed that administration of antioxidants normalized ROS  
466 production and antioxidant responses and incidentally also led to improvements in macrophage  
467 function and polarization (31, 33, 39, 58, 62, 76, 84, 99, 135, 154). Several clinical studies have  
468 investigated the effect of antioxidant administration on exacerbation rates. In COPD patients, the  
469 antioxidant and mucolytic agent carbocysteine was well tolerated and daily administration for  
470 one year lowered the number of exacerbations in both placebo-controlled and observational  
471 studies (64, 196). The antioxidant activity of erdosteine was already confirmed earlier by lower  
472 plasma ROS and 8-isoprostane levels, and it was recently also demonstrated to lower the rate

473 and duration of COPD exacerbations (46, 47). Long-term high-dose NAC treatment (600 mg  
474 twice a day) was safe and able to reduce exacerbation frequency in COPD as well, although this  
475 was in particular true for moderate disease severity and high-risk patients (169, 170, 197).  
476 However, 600 mg daily NAC was unsuccessful in preventing COPD exacerbations, possibly  
477 pointing towards a dose-dependent effect (48). Similar trials in asthma patients are currently  
478 lacking and the efficacy of antioxidants in reducing asthma exacerbations therefore remains to  
479 be elucidated.

480 Recent meta-analysis of individual participant data demonstrated that supplemental vitamin D  
481 reduced the asthma exacerbation rate and this outcome did not differ across patient subgroups  
482 (88). Yet, supplementation was only able to reduce exacerbations in COPD patients with baseline  
483 vitamin D concentrations below a certain threshold (93, 106, 117).

484 Targeting oxidative stress using antioxidants may thus provide a strategy for the reduction  
485 and/or prevention of exacerbations, though pre-specified subgroups of patients should probably  
486 be considered. Furthermore, evaluating the effects on baseline oxidative stress levels could help  
487 understand why not all patients benefit from antioxidant treatment. Evidence regarding the  
488 mechanism of action in positive trials of antioxidants is also required to clarify whether it is the  
489 antioxidant capacity that is critical in reducing exacerbation rates, since most agents described  
490 also have mucolytic and anti-inflammatory properties.

491

## 492 **Conclusions**

493 This summary of existing literature shows that asthma and COPD and exacerbations of these  
494 diseases are characterized by high oxidative stress and impaired macrophage function.  
495 Macrophages have multiples roles in the oxidative stress associated with exacerbations: on the  
496 one hand the high numbers of (altered) macrophages in asthma and COPD contribute to  
497 generation of ROS/RNS and on the other hand oxidative stress also affects macrophage function  
498 and polarization. Oxidative stress is associated with decreased capacity of macrophages to  
499 respond to pathogens, caused by decreased phagocytosis and aberrant polarization and this

500 appears to be crucial in the insufficient initial response to exacerbating stimuli. To date, much of  
501 the knowledge on oxidative stress and macrophages has been derived from animal models of  
502 exacerbations. Although these may provide mechanistic insights, their actual relevance to  
503 human disease is largely unknown. Further study into the interactions between oxidative stress  
504 and macrophages in the context of acute exacerbations may give us valuable information on how  
505 exacerbations occur and why some obstructive lung patients develop exacerbations while others  
506 do not. Ideally, one would map fluctuations in a patient undergoing oxidative stress over time,  
507 compare frequent and infrequent exacerbators and find out whether asthma and COPD patients  
508 before an exacerbation show evidence of more oxidative stress than before a non-exacerbating  
509 respiratory infection or compared to healthy controls experiencing a similar respiratory tract  
510 infection. This knowledge may lead to targets, markers and therapeutic strategies to reduce or  
511 prevent exacerbations.

512

### 513 **Acknowledgements**

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515

516 **Table 1.** Overview of papers that cite macrophage polarization.

Reference	Macrophage	Definition
<b>Human</b>		
Bazzan et al., 2017 (9)	M1	iNOS confirmed by HLA-DR, TNF- $\alpha$
	M2	CD206, IL-4, IL-13
Draijer et al., 2017 (54)	M1	IRF5
	M2	CD206
	M2-like	IL-10
Eapen et al., 2017 (61)	M1	iNOS
	M2	Arginase, CD163
Girodet et al., 2016 (72)	M0	CD206 <sup>lo</sup> MHC-II <sup>lo</sup>
	M2	CD206 <sup>hi</sup> MHC-II <sup>hi</sup>
Gutierrez et al., 2010 (75)	M1	TNF- $\alpha$ , IL-6
	M2	Arginase, CD206
Hodge et al., 2011 (81)	M1	CR-3, CR-4, Fc $\gamma$ R1, HLA classes I and II
	M2	Arginase, DC-SIGN
Melgert et al., 2011 (122)	Alternatively activated	CD206, stabilin-1
<b>Mouse</b>		
Bunting et al., 2013 (35)	Alternatively activated	Arginase-1, FIZZ1, CCL24, YM1
Chung et al., 2015 (41)	M2	CD206, CD301, IL-13
Draijer et al., 2013; 2016; 2018 (53, 55, 56)	M1	IRF5
	M2	CD206, YM1
	M2-like	IL-10
Hong et al., 2014 (82)	M1	IFN- $\gamma$ , TNF- $\alpha$ , IL-12
	M2	Arginase-1, CD206, CD301, YM1, IL-4, IL-13
	M2a	CCL17, CCL24
	M2b	IL-10, CD86
	M2c	CXCL13
Kurowska-Stolarska et al., 2009 (102)	M1	TLR2, IL-12, TNF- $\alpha$ , CXCL10
	Alternatively activated	CD206, YM1, FIZZ1, CCL17, CCL22, CCL24
Moreira et al., 2010 (125)	M2	Arginase-1, FIZZ1, YM1
Nagarkar et al., 2010 (131)	M2/alternatively activated	Arginase-1, FIZZ1, YM1, TNF- $\alpha$ , p70 IL-12, MGL-2, IL-10
Robbe et al., 2015 (146)	M1	IRF5
	M2	YM1
	Anti-inflammatory	IL-10

517 Abbreviations: iNOS = inducible nitric oxide synthase, HLA = human leukocyte antigen, TNF- $\alpha$  = tumor necrosis factor  $\alpha$ , CD = cluster of  
518 differentiation, IL = interleukin, IRF5 = interferon regulatory factor 5, MHC = major histocompatibility complex, CR = complement receptor,  
519 Fc $\gamma$ R1 = Fc gamma receptor 1, DC-SIGN = dendritic cell-specific intercellular adhesion molecule grabbing non-integrin, FIZZ1 = found in  
520 inflammatory zone 1, CCL = chemokine (C-C motif) ligand, YM1 = chitinase 3-like 3, IFN- $\gamma$  = interferon  $\gamma$ , CXCL = chemokine (C-X-C motif)  
521 ligand, TLR2 = toll like receptor 2, MGL-2 = macrophage galactose N-acetyl-galactosamine specific lectin 2  
522

523 **Table 2.** Overview of oxidative stress markers during acute exacerbations of asthma and COPD.

Marker	Reference	Material	Observation	P
<b>Asthma</b>				
8-isoprostane	Zanconato et al., 2004 (193)	EBC	↔ (n=9) vs. stable asthma (n=13)	NS
	Baraldi et al., 2003 (7)	EBC	↑ vs. after 5 d prednisone treatment (n=15)	<0.05
	Mak et al., 2013 (116)	Plasma	↑ vs. remission (n=18)	<0.01
MDA	Corradi et al., 2003 (45)	EBC	↑ vs. after 5 d prednisone treatment (n=12)	0.001
	Nadeem et al., 2005 (130)	Plasma	↑ (n=32) vs. stable asthma (n=71)	<0.05
	Rahman et al., 1996 (143)	Plasma	↑ (n=11) vs. stable asthma (n=9)	<0.05
	Gumral et al., 2009 (74)	RBCs	↑ vs. stable periods (n=16)	<0.01
Protein carbonyls	Nadeem et al., 2005 (130)	Plasma	↔ (n=25) vs. stable asthma (n=73)	NS
	Rahman et al., 1996 (143)	Plasma	↔ (n=11) vs. stable asthma (n=9)	NS
ROM	Suzuki et al., 2008 (162)	Serum	↑ vs. convalescence (n=7)	<0.001
	Suzuki et al., 2008 (162)	Serum	↑ (n=42) vs. stable asthma (n=11)	<0.05
<b>COPD</b>				
8-isoprostane	Antczak et al., 2012 (3)	EBC	↑ vs. stable periods (n=16)	<0.001
	Biernacki et al., 2003 (18)	EBC	↑ vs. after 2 w antibiotic treatment (n=21)	<0.0001
	Tufvesson et al., 2013 (172)	Sputum	↔ vs. stable periods (n=25) <sup>*</sup>	NS
H <sub>2</sub> O <sub>2</sub>	Antczak et al., 2012 (3)	EBC	↑ vs. stable periods (n=16)	<0.001
	Oudijk et al., 2006 (137)	EBC	↑ vs. after 7 d intravenous corticosteroid treatment (n=10)	<0.0005
	Gerritsen et al., 2005 (71)	EBC	↑ vs. after 7 d prednisolone treatment (n=14)	0.001
	Dekhuijzen et al., 1996 (49)	EBC	↑ (n=19) vs. stable COPD (n=12)	<0.001
MDA	Antus et al., 2014 (4)	EBC	↔ vs. discharge (n=34)	NS
	Antus et al., 2014 (4)	EBC	↔ (n=34) vs. stable COPD (n=21)	NS
	Zeng et al., 2013 (194)	Plasma	↑ (n=43) vs. stable COPD (n=35)	<0.05
	Stanojkovic et al., 2011 (159)	Plasma	↓ vs. discharge (n=74)	N/A
	Rahman et al., 1997 (144)	Plasma	↑ vs. discharge (n=13)	<0.01
	Rahman et al., 1996 (143)	Plasma	↑ (n=11) vs. stable COPD (n=9)	<0.05
	Gumral et al., 2009 (74)	RBCs	↑ vs. stable periods (n=17)	<0.001
	Tug et al., 2004 (173)	Serum	↑ vs. stable periods (n=24)	N/A
	Antus et al., 2014 (4)	Sputum	↑ vs. discharge (n=34)	<0.05
	Antus et al., 2014 (4)	Sputum	↑ (n=34) vs. stable COPD (n=21)	<0.01
Zeng et al., 2013 (194)	Sputum	↑ (n=43) vs. stable COPD (n=35)	<0.001	
Protein carbonyls	Rahman et al., 1996 (143)	Plasma	↔ (n=11) vs. stable asthma (n=9)	NS
ROM	Komatsu et al., 2007 (97)	Blood	↑ (n=8) vs. chronic stable state (n=10) and recovery (n=6) <sup>**</sup>	<0.01
	Koutsokera et al., 2009 (98)	Serum	↔ vs. follow-up (n=30)	NS

524 Observations are defined as an increase (↑), decrease (↓) or no change (↔) in quantified concentrations of oxidative stress markers  
 525 during acute exacerbations compared to either the same group of patients during recovery, or a separate group with stable disease.

526 Abbreviations: MDA = malondialdehyde, ROM = reactive oxygen metabolites, EBC = exhaled breath condensate, RBCs = red blood cells, d =  
 527 days, w = weeks, NS = not significant, N/A = not available

528 <sup>\*</sup>Stable periods are before the onset of exacerbation

529 <sup>\*\*</sup>All from the same n=10, chronic stable state is before the onset of exacerbation

530

531 **Table 3.** Overview of antioxidants during acute exacerbations of asthma and COPD.

Marker	Reference	Material	Observation	P
<b>Asthma</b>				
CAT	Gumral et al., 2009 (74)	RBCs	↑ vs. stable periods (n=16)	<0.001
	Nadeem et al., 2005 (130)	RBCs	↔ (n=32) vs. stable asthma (n=89)	NS
GPx	Nadeem et al., 2005 (130)	Plasma	↔ (n=25) vs. stable asthma (n=83)	NS
	Gumral et al., 2009 (74)	RBCs	↓ vs. stable periods (n=16)	<0.01
	Nadeem et al., 2005 (130)	RBCs	↔ (n=28) vs. stable asthma (n=82)	NS
GRd	Gumral et al., 2009 (74)	RBCs	↓ vs. stable periods (n=16)	<0.001
GSH	Nadeem et al., 2005 (130)	Blood	↔ (n=30) vs. stable asthma (n=86)	NS
	Corradi et al., 2003 (45)	EBC	↓ vs. after 5 d prednisone treatment (n=12)	<0.05
	Deveci et al., 2004 (50)	Sputum	↓ (n=10) vs. stable asthma (n=11)	<0.001
Protein sulfhydryls	Nadeem et al., 2005 (130)	Plasma	↓ (n=32) vs. stable asthma (n=90)	<0.01
	Rahman et al., 1996 (143)	Plasma	↔ (n=11) vs. stable asthma (n=9)	NS
SOD	Katsoulis et al., 2010 (91)	RBCs	↓ vs. discharge (n=38)	<0.001
	Gumral et al., 2009 (74)	RBCs	↔ vs. stable periods (n=16)	NS
	Nadeem et al., 2005 (130)	RBCs	↔ (n=32) vs. stable asthma (n=80)	NS
TEAC	Rahman et al., 1996 (143)	Plasma	↓ (n=11) vs. stable asthma (n=9)	N/A
TRX	Yamada et al., 2003 (189)	Serum	↑ vs. stable periods (n=8)	<0.005
	Yamada et al., 2003 (189)	Serum	↑ (n=26) vs. stable asthma (n=30)	<0.01
<b>COPD</b>				
CAT	Gumral et al., 2009 (74)	RBCs	↔ vs. stable periods (n=17)	NS
GPx	Zeng et al., 2013 (194)	Plasma	↓ (n=43) vs. stable COPD (n=35)	<0.05
	Gumral et al., 2009 (74)	RBCs	↓ vs. stable periods (n=17)	<0.01
	Zeng et al., 2013 (194)	Sputum	↓ (n=43) vs. stable COPD (n=35)	<0.001
GRd	Gumral et al., 2009 (74)	RBCs	↓ vs. stable periods (n=17)	<0.05
GSH	Drost et al., 2005 (57)	BALF	↓ (n=12) vs. stable COPD (n=5)	N/A
	Zeng et al., 2013 (194)	Plasma	↓ (n=43) vs. stable COPD (n=35)	<0.05
	Turgut et al., 2014 (174)	Sputum	↔ (n=11) vs. stable COPD (n=10)	NS
	Zeng et al., 2013 (194)	Sputum	↓ (n=43) vs. stable COPD (n=35)	<0.001
Protein sulfhydryls	Rahman et al., 1997 (144)	Plasma	↓ vs. discharge (n=13)	<0.001
	Rahman et al., 1996 (143)	Plasma	↓ (n=11) vs. stable COPD (n=9)	<0.05
SOD	Zeng et al., 2013 (194)	Plasma	↓ (n=43) vs. stable COPD (n=35)	<0.05
	Stanojkovic et al., 2011 (159)	Plasma	↑ vs. discharge (n=74)	N/A
	Gumral et al., 2009 (74)	RBCs	↑ vs. stable periods (n=17)	<0.01
	Zeng et al., 2013 (194)	Sputum	↓ (n=43) vs. stable COPD (n=35)	<0.001
TEAC	Rahman et al., 1997 (144)	Plasma	↓ vs. discharge (n=13)	<0.05
	Rahman et al., 1996 (143)	Plasma	↓ (n=11) vs. stable asthma (n=9)	N/A

532 Observations are defined as an increase (↑), decrease (↓) or no change (↔) in quantified concentrations of antioxidants during acute  
 533 exacerbations compared to either the same group of patients during recovery, or a separate group with stable disease.

534 Abbreviations: CAT = catalase, GPx = glutathione peroxidase, GRd = glutathione reductase, GSH = glutathione, SOD = superoxide dismutase,  
 535 TEAC = trolox equivalent antioxidant capacity, TRX = thioredoxin, RBCs = red blood cells, EBC = exhaled breath condensate, BALF =  
 536 bronchoalveolar lavage fluid, d = days, NS = not significant, N/A = not available  
 537



## 538 **Figure legends**

539 **Figure 1.** Summary of the M1 (blue) and M2 (grey) polarization concept. Shown are different  
540 markers and cytokines that have been used in literature to identify differentially polarized  
541 macrophages in the human and murine lung.

542

543 **Figure 2.** Highlights of the oxidative stress pathway and its markers/antioxidants (upper panel).  
544 Oxidative stress can lead to lipid peroxidation products, oxidized proteins and/or amino acids  
545 and oxidative DNA damage. In cases of overwhelming oxidative responses ( $R\cdot$ ) and therefore cell  
546 and tissue damage by reactive species, Nrf2 translocates to the nucleus, where it binds to  
547 antioxidant response elements (ARE) and activates genes involved in the cellular antioxidant  
548 and anti-inflammatory defense (lower panel). Under normal conditions, Nrf2 is maintained in  
549 the cytoplasm by Kelch-like ECH-associated protein 1 (Keap1), resulting in its rapid  
550 ubiquitination (ub) and subsequent proteasomal degradation.

551

552 **Figure 3.** Macrophages in the development of asthma and COPD exacerbations. The altered  
553 polarization and defective phagocytosis and efferocytosis of macrophages as seen in asthma and  
554 COPD results in impaired responses towards exogenous (oxidative) triggers, leading to  
555 exaggerated airway inflammation and oxidative stress. Concomitantly, high oxidative stress  
556 facilitates an increase in NADPH oxidases, mitochondrial dysfunction and reduced Nrf2 activity,  
557 thereby influencing immune responses and contributing to aggravation of inflammation in the  
558 airways, further enhanced oxidative stress and exacerbations.

559

560 **Figure 4.** Contributing factors to oxidative stress during exacerbations of asthma and COPD.  
561 Environmental stimuli that trigger exacerbations (e.g. air pollution, respiratory pathogens,  
562 cigarette smoke and allergens) account for an increase in exogenous ROS. Subsequently, this  
563 provokes (mitochondrial) ROS generation by resident and inflammatory cells in the airways and  
564 the circulation. Together with the enhanced recruitment of ROS-producing inflammatory cells to

565 the airways, this ultimately leads to the increased oxidative stress and altered antioxidant  
566 availability observed during exacerbations. Presented cells are eosinophils (red), neutrophils  
567 (purple), monocytes/macrophages (blue) and epithelial cells (green).

568

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